

Volume 37 Number 6
MARCH 1955

Route to
Desk

School Life



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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Recruiting the New Teacher *

THERE is little reason to wonder that our young people have been turning away from a teaching career in droves. Nobody seems to have given a thought to trying to "sell" teaching as a career for the college graduate. All the emphasis has, instead, been on the negative. If a store, or a manufacturer, or an advertising agency tried to sell goods with the methods our educators have been using to fill teaching vacancies they would go bankrupt in a week. "Wanted: Young men and women, at starvation wages, for a job without a future. Long hours. Hard work. Applicants are warned that they will be regarded as social inferiors in the community. Do not apply if you have any ambition to better yourself. Faithful service not appreciated. Please apply, regardless of these conditions, as you are badly needed."

This is the style in which teaching as a career has been advertised, not only stressing the adverse, but sometimes exaggerating and misrepresenting it. The reason is, of course, that school administrators, teacher organizations, and other elements in the community have been trying to obtain better financial support for schools from government, and to equalize educational opportunity. That is the worthy purpose, and we have joined in it. At the same time our schools now reap an unexpected and unwelcome harvest. We have so emphasized the adverse that our young people have been misled into thinking that there is no other side. Suppose, for a change, the case were put this way, as it could be in New York City: "Wanted: Young men and women to enter attractive profession. Starting pay immediately out of college, \$2,500, or \$2,700 if master's degree. Steady, automatic increases. Pleasant associations. Make new friends. Be paid while learning. Three-month vacation each year. Retirement pension. Leave of absence every seventh year. Advancement to high executive positions possible . . ."

Yes there is an attractive side to the teaching profession and more needs to be said about it. Yet, to get teachers, good teachers, we shall have to emphasize the high mission of the profession. It is not the expected pay that brings young men into the ministry, some of them great, inspiring preachers. Nor are great doctors made that way.

We shall not attract great numbers of young people to the teaching profession with material rewards alone, though these should be adequate, but rather by pointing out an opportunity for great service, lived in a setting which is not unattractive for those so disposed. We shall have to clothe the profession with a new dignity, and in this the teacher himself will have to play his part.

*Reprinted from the *New York Times*.

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Cover photograph: Boys in a Thailand primary school make a model chicken coop as part of a unit of work on "Increasing our supply of food at home."

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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American Education on a New Horizon

by Raymond C. Gibson, Director, Education Missions Branch, Division of International Education, Office of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

IN NOVEMBER 1953, it was my privilege to talk with a devoted Buddhist Priest in Chiangmai, Thailand, and discuss the basic principles of our respective religions. When asked to enumerate the important precepts of Buddhism the priest replied: "Avoid evil; do good; serve your fellow man." These are the ideals that have motivated the followers of Buddha for 2,497 years—ideals that are in harmony with our finest Christian heritage.

One of the greatest men of our time, Mahatma Gandhi, believed that the ultimate values and realities are love and truth. His victory for India through the pursuit of these virtues stands as one of the miracles of modern times.

No one can study the teachings of Buddha, Christ, Confucius, and Mohammed without realizing the cultural interdependence of societies. The concepts of justice and virtue running through the great religions have motivated men to seek, through social and political organizations, the implementation of man's spiritual aspirations.

In the West these manifestations have taken the form of democratic societies with great emphasis upon the values of freedom, justice, and dignity of man. The industrial revolution, which brought material blessings to all peoples in the technologically advanced countries, has had the unfortunate result of shifting our emphasis from ultimate ends to means. As we approach the problem, therefore, of uniting peoples of the East and the West we must try to keep in balance materialistic means and spiritual ends.

Eastern Leaders Turn to U. S.

With the new upsurge of independence in the Philippines, Korea, Indonesia, India, and the countries of the Near East since the Second World War, there has emerged a group of indigenous leaders committed to the policy of education and economic development for the benefit of all the people.

These leaders recognize the relationship between education and economic development, and they have turned to America for assistance in applying knowledge and skills toward the solution of their problems.

Are the American people qualified to provide leadership in these programs of economic and social development in nations less fortunate than ours? I believe that the answer lies in the motivation and long-range objectives which characterized the settlers of this country. They came to establish a new world in accordance with the fruits of the Renaissance and the Reformation and later to take full advantage of the industrial revolution. In short, they came to establish homes with religious freedom, equality among men, the dignity of labor, and political and economic independence as the foundation of their culture. They came because of a desire to break with Old World restrictions upon freedom.

If we are qualified at all to assist in the development of leadership necessary for the countries recently become independent, it is because we adopted the philosophy of the Declaration of Independence 178 years ago. And, following the War of Independence, the Founding Fathers, having thrown off the yoke of a foreign government, were wise enough to adopt a constitution which would protect the people against their own Government. Thus was established the proper environment for the development of public education, resourcefulness, initiative, and free enterprise which are the benchmarks of our "coming of age" as a world power in this century.

Early development of the common schools in an atmosphere of freedom and at public expense guaranteed the flourishing of ideas and dynamic progress in institutions, commerce, industry—and in everything we hold dear as "the American Way of Life."

The preamble to the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 proclaimed that "Religion, Morality, and Knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of

mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." That policy has been incorporated in the constitution or statutes of every one of the 48 States and has been implemented through the development of universal public schools as a basic necessity for the economic and spiritual life of the Nation.

During recent months the Supreme Court of the United States has reiterated our fundamental allegiance to education as the birthright of every individual without regard to race or color. While we were slow in recognizing this right of a minority group, the recent decision indicates the tremendous progress that has been made during these 167 years and has called attention to the fact that the principle of universal education has been firmly established.

Educators Accept the Challenge

With this heritage of freedom in our country American educators accept their challenges and opportunities on a new horizon, confident that education, properly related to the needs of the people, can help in the solution of their problems. For as Booker T. Washington said, "We shall prosper in proportion as we learn to dignify and glorify labor and put brains and skill into the common occupations of life." The free nations of the world, less fortunate than we in the development of educational opportunities, need men like Booker T. Washington, and others who have followed him, who subscribe to the practice of education for free men in a society where all men are free, and where at least part of those men must work in occupations that require manual skills. American educators serving around the world need to see clearly their dual purpose of preparing people to work and to live. One of the great tragedies in many of the so-called underdeveloped countries is that institutions of higher learning are designed primarily to educate men for leisure rather than for useful work.

Let me describe the conditions which our technicians face on this new frontier. Fifty percent of all the adults in the world are absolutely illiterate. Another 15 percent have received less than 4 years of formal education. Most of these people live in countries along the periphery of the Iron Curtain—on both sides—and in Latin America. They populate the vast new republics of Indonesia, the Philippines, Burma, India, Israel, Pakistan, Afghanistan, and the Arab countries.

They comprise most of the peoples of China and of Africa. They follow the ancient agricultural pursuits of their forefathers in Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

I have observed the Indians of Peru as they prepare the soil for corn, using the spade, the wooden stick, or heavy hoe as the only tools for cultivation. I have watched them thresh their grain by driving oxen over it or by flailing it by hand. I have seen the indigenous peoples of Cambodia and Siam cultivating their rice paddies in water 3 feet deep, using the water buffalo as the beast of burden and wading after the crude wooden plow all day long. I have seen whole families as they pull the stalks of rice from the plant beds and set them by hand in hundreds of acres covered with water. Most of the energy for agriculture in these regions is provided by human beings. Because their methods of producing food have remained the same for two thousand years or longer, most of the people are hungry and undernourished.

A vast majority of all these people suffer all of their lives from diseases—preventable diseases such as malaria, trachoma, dysentery, yaws, smallpox, typhoid, cholera, and leprosy. Because of undernourishment, disease, poverty, and unsanitary living conditions life expectancy is only 30 years.

Common Schools Are Needed

In education there are many almost insurmountable problems—lack of schools, books, and teachers for the rural areas; inadequate facilities and skilled teachers for vocational education; traditional approach to higher education and the dichotomy between education and work; and finally the heavy incidence of illiteracy at the adult level which will never improve until common schools have been developed for all the people.

We enter these countries to provide technical assistance only upon the invitation of their governments. Our work in education

is upon the invitation of ministries of education.

The development of common schools for the masses is one of our basic objectives. A few examples of present elementary school opportunities lend meaning to this objective. During my 2 years in Peru, I saw as many as 100 children huddled together in one classroom at 13,000 feet elevation in the cold, bleak Andes. Their teacher was not well-prepared; they had only notebooks and pencils—no books. Their school was without windows. They sat either on the dirt floor or on benches made from dried mud. They memorize and repeat what the teacher dictates. After a few years in school, they lapse into illiteracy. It is not surprising that children leave these schools to work on their parents' farms at an early age.

I have observed the same conditions in the jungle of the Amazon, on the Nile, and in primitive communities of Thailand and Cambodia. In traveling by automobile from Siem Reap in Northern Cambodia, to Phnom Phin in the South, I passed through some of the most primitive country I have ever seen. Yet there were new schoolhouses in almost every village—little schools constructed by the people without any tax support. Many of these new schools were tragically vacant in the middle of the school year, because there were no teachers for them.

The new republic of Indonesia has proclaimed in its constitution that education is to be the birthright of every child. And they are so determined to make this objective a reality that thousands of graduates of the primary schools are being prepared through correspondence courses to teach others in the new schools.

In the Philippines the common schools, designed to service community improvement, have pioneered in the development of better vegetable gardens, poultry, fish ponds, and other sources of food. The diet of all the people is being improved through these efforts.

In Thailand I visited a junior high school near the border of Burma where boys using the simplest hand tools, had constructed an adequate building for manual arts. The pride with which they told their story would have inspired the Sphinx. In another secondary school, near Bangkok, for more sophisticated boys, there was no opportunity to learn any manual skill. And I found that in a carpentry school for boys, there was no opportunity to take any aca-

demical course—only carpentry all day long. One group is educated to work—the other to live—and neither is successful. Only 7 percent of the children go beyond the 4th grade and 1 in 1,000 goes to the university. But the curriculum from the first grade through high school is designed to prepare students for the university.

In my work with the teachers colleges in Peru, Indochina, and Thailand, I discovered that they are very near the same conditions as prevailed here in the United States in 1850. I found that of 256 teachers in provincial normal schools of Thailand, only 9 are college graduates. No teachers college can give a bachelor's degree, and the work taken in them has little value toward a degree in the local university.

New Diplomacy Is Created

In Latin America, Asia, the Near East, and Africa, American educators are quietly and patiently helping ministries of education and the common people to develop rural schools to eliminate illiteracy and provide reading materials for the next generation; and to teach health and agriculture in order to improve the general living conditions. Vocational schools are being organized to teach indigenous people the skills necessary to increase production and the general standard of living. And, above all, we are helping the people in reorganizing and making more effective their institutions for preparing teachers.

American educators, agriculturalists, physicians, engineers, and businessmen are creating a new kind of diplomacy—an understanding of people that comes from working cooperatively on problems, the solutions to which can mean longer, healthier lives and a greater degree of freedom. American colleges and universities have responded to Mr. Stassen's call for help in providing technical assistance to institutions around the world. Moreover, our educational institutions are working diligently with 30,000 foreigners who are now studying in this country. Incidentally, these foreign scholars in our schools offer the greatest opportunity we have ever experienced in correcting our own cultural lag.

The underdeveloped countries constitute an economic, cultural, and political vacuum. They are susceptible to commercial exploitation, political propaganda, and military conquest. Preventable diseases, poverty, and ignorance are enemies of man that can and should be conquered.

(Continued on page 94)



How Educational Can Educational Television Be?*

by Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

ESSENTIALLY, television is only a carrier system—a means of communication. It can carry sight and sound, gestures, facial expression, voice, and pictures. It can interpret action, personality, music, art, literature, science, philosophy, mathematics; and it can draw on any of the other reservoirs of human knowledge. That is why television is important to us today.

Entertainment, news, great human events, and sports are all an essential part of our daily living. Other mediums of communication—the stage, books, magazines, newspapers, and the radio—bring them to us, but television brings them to us more completely and with greater speed.

Have We Found A Magic Formula?

So we have wondered, could it be that we have here, in addition to a quickened means of communication, a quickened means of education? We are always searching for the Golden Fleece in education—have we found it? Virginia Gildersleeve, dean emeritus of Barnard College, tells us in her admirable autobiography:

"There is no magic formula of education . . . no fruit of the tree of knowledge which swiftly eaten makes us as wise as God, knowing good and evil. Even in these critical days, when educated persons are so desperately needed, the process of education requires time and work and striving.

The ability to think straight, some knowledge of the past, some vision of the future, some skill to do useful service, some urge to put that service into the well-being of the community—these are the most vital things education must try to produce. If we can achieve them . . . we shall have brought to America the wisdom and the courage to match her destiny."

Most educators will readily agree with Dean Gildersleeve that we have not yet found an educational magic formula in television. We must all agree, however, on the values of television which have already been demonstrated in education. Therefore, we must steer a middle course in using it. *First*, we must understand our audience. *Second*, we must apply our best and most acceptable teaching methods. *Third*, we must test our results.

Understanding our audience is more difficult than understanding our classroom students—because television is a mass medium. By and large, we don't know who our television students are, unless we have telecourses in extension education or captive audiences in classrooms. Is it wasteful to use television for minimum highly selective audiences only? A stamp club, on the air for years by radio only, had millions of listeners in history, geography, economics, and world affairs! Can we discount the mass audience, hungry for knowledge, in an attempt to train the relatively few? Let us study our audiences first, find out who they are, where they are, what they want,

and what they would want if they only knew about it. We should have programs for specific interest audiences but not so specific that they could be assembled in a few classrooms. For these audiences it would be better for us to use motion pictures selected from well-organized catalogs which list many pictures made at a great output of time, effort, and money. Or we might use closed-circuit television with live programming for the small audience, but we need not waste valuable broadcasting facilities for a minor effort, regardless of its apparent immediate importance.

What Programs Serve Education?

What then can an educational television station legitimately do to justify its very existence? What can we do to make that agency the most important in modern communication to serve mankind? And, of the dozen educational stations on the air, which ones are doing it?

As you will see from the chart and its legend, ten major types of programs are now being televised. All are familiar with the first four types of programs: (1) Entertainment features, (2) news, news comment, (3) sports, and (4) special events. The other six types deserve special comment.

*Based upon an address made before the Educational Television Research Association at the University of California, Berkeley, January 15, 1955.

No. 5, Cultural.—This type of program begins to look interesting to educators. It includes programs of great cultural value—operas like *Amahl and the Night Visitors*, by Menotti, produced in the past few years by NBC; and *Sister Angelica*, by Puccini, also produced by NBC; concerts by symphony orchestras like San Francisco Symphony and the New York Philharmonic of CBS; programs of current cultural values, like *Omnibus*; and dramas like *Studio One*, *Robert Montgomery Presents*, *Philco Hour*, *CBS Workshop*, and many other fine, cultural, and entertaining features.

No. 6, Developmental (for want of a better word).—This type includes programs like *Heritage* done by the National Gallery of Art and NBC, *Adventure*, *Medic*, *The Search*, *You Are There*, *See It Now*, *Now and Then*, with Frank Baxter, who presents the great permanent literary works of the world, utilizing the photographic element in television to take us places and to let us see things. It also includes reviews of current books, with the views of authors on their own and others' work, and music appreciation, with explanations of the values achieved through trained listening and viewing through supplemental visual aids and the reading of scores.

No. 7, News background.—In presenting news on this type of program authorities give background material which aids the viewer in understanding it; this type also includes high-level discussion programs.

No. 8, Talks.—Under this classification are talks like those on the BBC, in many subject-matter fields to cover a wide variety of special interests.

No. 9, Dramatized research.—Through televising dramatized research many people can be informed of the work in countless industrial and engineering enterprises in many fields contiguous to human needs—like child welfare, health, recreation, housing, and food—and, particularly in university and college research laboratories and extensive research institutions which bring the fruits of study and invention to bear on the welfare of humankind. An example of this type of program is the *Johns Hopkins Science Review*.

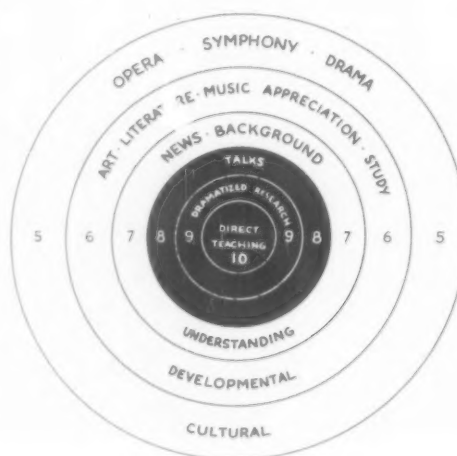
No. 10, Direct teaching.—Through this type of program television makes possible not only the extension of teaching to millions heretofore unable by circumstances to receive it conveniently, but the illumination of the mind by the audio and visual faculties possessed in television.

To these means of education must be added reference books, written and graphically illustrated notes, proper tests for achievement, and when justified, credit toward advancement in the fields of study and accomplishment.

The chart classifies the types of programs by source. Those which must come from standard commercial stations are in the out-

side area; those which might be done equally well by standard commercial or educational stations are in the white area; and those which seem to be the obligation of educational stations are in the black.

Types 1 through 4, which are not shown on the chart, are in the outside area. Numbers 5, 6, and 7 are in the white, and numbers 8, 9, and 10 are in the black area.



Types of television programs: (1) Entertainment; (2) News: newscasts, comment, and discussion; (3) Sports; (4) Special Events; (5) Cultural: opera, symphony, drama; (6) Developmental: art, literature, music appreciation; (7) News: background, understanding, and discussion; (8) Talks: by authorities in subject-matter fields; (9) Dramatized Research: *Johns Hopkins Science Review*; (10) Direct Teaching: extension and classroom. (Types 1-4 are not shown in the chart.)

Who Pays the Bills?

A number of notable programs are being produced by educational television stations. Among them are the following: At Ames, Iowa (WOI-TV), *Iowa School Time* for elementary and secondary students; at Houston (KUHT), a course in home nursing; at Los Angeles (KTHE), a dramatic program in which children act out a story called "I Play Like"; at the University of Wisconsin (WHA-TV) the children's program "The Friendly Giant"; at Pittsburgh (WQED), the High School Continuation course; at St. Louis, "The Finder"; at the University of North Carolina, "The Bible"; and at San Francisco (KQED), who can forget "Buckskin Bob?"

These are only a few of the programs produced by educational stations. Such stations cost from \$250,000 to \$750,000. It costs from \$60,000 (minimum at Houston) to \$300,000 to run them every year.

Where do they get their money? The first source is support from the public memberships in the station and general contributions. The second is the paid programs, sealed and delivered from associates using them. The third is sale of books. This is an unlimited field of legitimate exploitation. What is an education without books? The fourth is the sale of courses

(telecourses at regular tuition rates). Western Reserve University has supported its entire TV project from this source. The fifth is sale of course materials. Many universities provide \$2, \$3, or \$5 packets. The sixth is foundation and industry support, and the seventh, tax support.

Will TV Affect Methods?

When we speak of research, we go back first to our audience, second, to our teaching methods; and third, to our results. Our audience has certain learner characteristics. Experience has taught us to recognize some of these characteristics in the individual. The first of these is *curiosity*—what we want to know is his relative awareness of his environment, his urge to find out the "why" of things. The second is *the nature and accuracy of his perceptions*. We want to know whether he sees in a situation merely the reflection of his own prejudices or whether he perceives accurately the component elements of the broadcast, the lesson. We want to know whether *when he looks, he really sees, when he hears, he really listens*. If he doesn't, we must teach him to see, to center his attention on details and not on conglomerate picture. If he doesn't listen when he hears, we must teach him how to listen. The third is *character and intensity of motivation*. We should be interested in whether his motivations have increased in maturity, commensurate with his assumed social and intellectual growth. The fourth is *reaction to problems*. Here we want to know whether, when faced with a problem of immediate concern, he is able to find a reasonable and practical solution.

We should like to discover: (a) *What imagination does he possess?* (b) *can he improvise and invent?* (c) *has he the ability to select, discriminate, and apply techniques that have demonstrated effectiveness?* (d) *we should like to know what his standards of thoroughness and accuracy are, and* (e) *finally, we should like to know whether he possesses that God-given quality of persistence to keep everlastingly at it—to stay with the program until it is finished.* Here a test may be made of the mass-audience as well as of the individual.

The Navy tests, at Port Washington Special Devices Center, which compared regular classroom kinescope and live television, revealed that live television was incomparably better than the other techniques. The Army tests at Camp Gordon showed that TV, with periodic class sessions, led to greater retentiveness, more attention to detail, and greater total understanding.

How does this affect any method of teaching? WFIL-TV University of the Air at Philadelphia offered a course in logic. Father Gannon, of St. Joseph's College there, gave the course. He had never used visual illustrations before, but when the art department of the station provided him

(Continued on page 94)

PART II*

Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight

by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

WHEN CHILDREN are in grades 7 and 8 (and 9) the tremendous urge away from adult restrictions and the striving to attain adulthood give the school a golden, if sometimes turbulent, opportunity to help children grow toward independent, self-reliant maturity. Most school educators know that the major problem which schools face during these years is how to encourage children to use their initiative and desire for independence in ways that will help them grow in understanding, in skills, and in responsible citizenship. Much of the activity of good schools is pointed toward the end of helping children achieve greater academic and social skill, greater knowledge of their own nation and of other nations, and greater ability to contribute to the happiness and well-being of others. The following account will attempt to show how educators in 76 schools are trying to achieve growth for children.

Many teachers are aware of their responsibility to help children grow in every way. Teachers who have the same children for all or part of every day find it relatively easy to help children understand their strengths and weaknesses and to help them make individual and group plans for improvement in basic skills, physical development, and social and emotional behavior. Teachers who deal with many groups of children daily, on the other hand, find it more difficult to gain intimate knowledge of each pupil's strength and shortcomings, to analyze causes, and to help students plan programs for individual and group development.

Growth in Language Arts

Educators understand that in reading, for instance, the great variety in growth patterns of human beings precludes that many children will read well at 12, 13, and 14, and that, no matter how skillful previous teachers have been in teaching children to read, some will come to the seventh

and eighth grades (and subsequent years as well) still in need of help and of planned opportunity to improve their reading skills. To know the sort of help each pupil needs, to provide it for each one, and at the same time to make it possible for each to use reading materials which enable him to keep up with the subject matter dealt with in his classes is the challenge. This requires a careful and continuing testing program, records of progress and of efforts made to analyze defects and to achieve success; it requires that the teacher be acquainted with these records; and it requires a program of materials and methods which can be adapted to need.

In the schools included in the present study records are available. Some schools are able, through central or room libraries at school, mobile or mailing services, or good use of the community library, to provide rich resources in reading, such as encyclopedias, reference and research materials, related and purely recreational fiction, magazines, and newspapers.

Some teachers extend this principle of variety into the daily work of the class. Cooperatively, studies or "projects" are planned to include the major interests of most students, and informative materials are corralled from libraries, other classrooms, homes, friends, and other sources. In this setting, it is possible to "pitch the reading level to suit the reader," whether he is a superior or slow reader, and to vary the approach so that "slow" readers have opportunities to learn through other avenues.

Several schools in the study provide planned help for children to improve their reading. Many teachers described adaptations they are making, such as individualized help in building reading vocabulary in a subject field, reading clubs to stimulate interest in all children, and challenging ways to exchange opinions on books. Several schools are placing "slow" readers

for a period with especially trained teachers who try to find ways to coordinate their reading practice with the work in subject-matter classes.

Growth in the ability to express oneself in speech and writing and to gain command of the structure of the English language is commonly a part of the program, too. Opportunities to express ideas and opinions differ with the degree to which children are brought into discussions about operating the school, the class, social affairs, and their own school lives, and the degree to which ideas and opinions are gleaned from all sources and interchanged in classes. Education in outlining, composing, and delivering reports is given; tape and disk recordings are often used as evidence. Many opportunities are utilized to lead children to express in writing what they themselves observe, feel, think, and imagine. School newspapers, cooperatively produced by students, are among the popular ways to encourage good writing as well as school interest. Letters, invitations, acknowledgments, and requests give practice in necessary business and social forms.

Attention to spelling continues, with many children meeting easy success, and others requiring much help. As in the previous grades, teachers use numerous devices to help pupils having difficulty in developing phonetic control which may be functional in spelling new words. This is difficult in our language, and visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and associative memory must be relied upon where phonics fail. For this reason, teachers seek to combine sounding, listening, looking, and writing in sentences words which are to be learned.

*Both articles refer to a study which is summarized in a bulletin, *Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight*, by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C. (Bulletin 1954 No. 10, price 35 cents.)

Growth in Mathematics

In the teaching of mathematics, as in previous grades, a noticeable effort is made to make experiences practical in order that the skills children learn may function in modern life. Activities such as banking, measuring for needed construction, budgeting, marketing, traveling, insurance, home purchase and management, and school business are used in schools to help children see how mathematical processes are used in life.

Growth in Social Studies and in Science

Citizenship, civics, history, geography, science, and other subjects which deal with the lives and achievements of people and nations are frequently grouped under some such title as social studies or social science. Subject-matter content varies and is usually dependent upon what has preceded in the years below seventh grade and what is to follow. Customarily, during these 2 years, children are expected to gain better understanding of the local, State, and National Government, and their own growing civic responsibilities. In some schools, a sequential study of the development of our Nation is placed here; in others attention is given to highlights in our history, but the sequential study is placed later.

Some of the schools visited utilize the self-interest which characterizes children in these grades to help children understand themselves better, and to help them understand their relationships to others. Responsibility to home and family, friends, school, community, the Nation, the world is examined in units organized for the purpose. The following themes (taken from the bulletin) illustrate the diversity of units studied in some of these schools during these years: Understanding Myself, Personality and Appearance, Beliefs and Superstitions, Problems of Living in Our School, Exploring Educational Opportunities, Achieving Good Intercultural Relations, Our Shrinking World, The State, Western (or Eastern) Hemisphere, Living in America.

In social studies, more particularly than in other areas, many teachers deliberately help children learn more about how to plan, to carry out plans, and to evaluate what they are doing and achieving. Children are expected to help the teacher plan (1) what we are going to study, (2) just what we want to find out, (3) where we will look for information, (4) how we will organize our class for the study, (5) how we will pool

what we are learning and doing, and (6) how we can make suggestions to each other for improving our work. One of the rich experiences carried out by a class working in this way was a visit to the State capital city in which they observed the legislature. On returning they reenacted the whole experience of governing insofar as they could see it. Legislative districts were studied by their child representatives, campaigns were run, senatorial elections were held in proper voting booths, and travel and living expenses were computed. Bills were formulated, hearings held, and votes taken. Following this, a gubernatorial and a presidential election was also held. In connection with this type of integrated study, children may gain much information and learn or strengthen many skills. Reading, interviewing, observing, experimenting, reporting, discussing are basic activities, each one containing a constellation of skills which profit by functional reinforcement.

Practically all schools included make an effort to help children keep up with the modern world. Newspapers, magazines, current maps, radio and television programs are utilized several times a week. Occasionally a solid block of the year is devoted to this, as in the school which treated the theme: Keeping Up With Current Affairs.

Music, Art, and Physical Education

Every school in the study places value upon music, art, and physical education in the education of children. Choruses, glee clubs, orchestras, bands, talent shows, and group singing testify to the recognition of music as a way of relating children to each other, and of increasing a sense of comradeship or "belonging." Art, too, is used in group expression: To produce scenery, costumes for a play, school or home improvement, or outdoor landscaping. In one or two schools it includes the community as well; for example, one school annually invites great artists to send a showing, encouraging the community to appreciate (and buy) some of the paintings. Opportunity is provided in both art and music for individual expression as well. Clay and soap modeling, finger-painting, textile design, block-printing, puppetry, mobiles, and other activities are in frequent evidence; and opportunity for instrumental practice is provided in many schools.

Physical education consists in most schools of a program which involves all

children in games, sports, rhythmic activities, self-testing activities, and which provides as well for the type of activity that marks a "quiet evening at home," activities such as table games, ping-pong, and social dancing. The former usually takes place in the regularly scheduled daily physical education periods; the latter during the noon hour as part of the recreation program. Some school leaders express conviction that children of these ages should be protected against the ravages of strong, exciting competition; many of those whose children engage in these activities express regret that this is so, but think they cannot diplomatically protect children against it.

Growth Through Homemaking and Shop Experiences

Experiences in these areas are offered children in many schools, sometimes as part of an integrated program and sometimes as separate courses. Experiences vary with the locality, often reflecting local needs and opportunities and the interests of children. In homemaking classes observed, both boys and girls frequently take part in studying and practicing meal preparation, personal grooming, sewing, room arrangement and decoration. In some schools children study child care. Shop experiences are also extended in some schools to both boys and girls. These experiences include work with plastics, leather, metal, wood, paint, and other "craft" enterprises; sometimes they include exploration into mechanical drawing, electrical tools and machines, auto and airplane mechanics, and agriculture.

Problems Remain To Be Solved

Interviews brought to light many problems with which educators and parents need help in dealing with children of these ages. These problems are listed in the bulletin. Consideration of them shows that many call for research, experimentation, and agreements by educators themselves. Others require cooperative study and agreement by parents, educators, and other community leaders. Interviews with parents and children reveal that they are appreciative of the intelligent, tireless, and sometimes creative ways in which schools provide for these children. They, too, are eager to cooperate with school people to make our schools even more effective in developing healthy, resourceful, intelligent young people.

Credit Union for Teachers

by Roy Q. Strain, Instructor, Compton Junior College, Compton, California *

IN 1937 A TEACHER in the schools of Compton, California, which was then a community of from 10,000 to 12,000 persons, decided to move from a furnished apartment to an unfurnished house. He had to buy furniture, and he needed about \$500 in addition to the money he had, but he found it impossible to obtain this money at a reasonable cost. In talking his situation over with other school employees he found that most of them faced the same problem—they needed money, but had no reasonably priced source from which to obtain it. Then he heard about credit unions. (Incidentally, it was from a five-line "filler" in SCHOOL LIFE.) He told his associates about his discovery, and 17 of them organized a credit union to serve their needs.

The credit union opened for business with \$250 invested and three loan applications totaling \$200. It has grown steadily ever since. During the intervening 17 years over 7,500 loans totaling nearly \$4,000,000 have been made; members' savings have risen to \$750,000; assets have passed the \$1,000,000 mark; about \$100,000 in dividends has been paid; a building worth over \$30,000 has been purchased as an office and has been furnished with \$10,000 worth of equipment; nearly \$30,000 in reserve funds has been accumulated; membership has risen to over 1,600 (Compton is now a community of about 75,000 population); \$250,000 has been collected in loan interest.

In addition to the usual savings and loan services of a credit union this credit union devised a special "Twelve-Month Salary Service" in 1939, which has proved valuable to members. Compton teachers, like so many teachers, are paid during the school year but not during the summer, which makes budgeting difficult. This credit union acts as a trustee for those members wishing to join its "Salary Club." It receives their pay warrants directly from the school district and pays the members one-twelfth of the annual salary each month.

The preceding sketch shows the solution which the school employees of one medium-sized community found for their money and budgetary problems. It is only an example. The same solution has been found by several hundred school employee groups all over the United States and Canada who have also organized and effectively operated credit unions for their mutual benefit. Other employee groups have also found the same solution. What, then, is this new institution?

A credit union is a cooperative savings and loan association organized by a group of people with some common bond of association to provide themselves with an institution in which they can deposit savings, particularly small savings, and from which they can borrow at reasonable interest rates. A group as small as 100 can operate a successful credit union. The common bond of association is usually an employee group, but it may also be a church group, a lodge group, a labor union group, or the residents of a small community for example. A credit union is a corporation which is granted a charter in accordance with either Federal or State law, as the case may be, and is operated in accordance with either Federal or State regulations and is supervised by either Federal or State officials in much the same manner as banks or building and loan associations.

The organization of a credit union is relatively simple, and assistance is always readily available from the organized credit union movement. There is a Credit Union League in nearly every State. The larger leagues have field men whose duties include the organization of new credit unions. The National Education Association has a "Committee on Credit Unions," which can give organization assistance. There is also the Credit Union National Association with headquarters in Madison, Wis., which has field men available to help new credit unions get started. The Bureau of Federal Credit Unions has a staff of trained examiners to assist groups that choose a Federal charter whenever a volunteer or an employee of

the League or Credit Union National Association is not available. Thus organization help is available merely for the asking.

Credit unions are cooperatives. They are managed by a board of directors which is elected by the members at an annual meeting, each member having one vote regardless of his investment. The officers are elected by the board of directors from among their number. The members of the credit union also elect a credit committee, which has the responsibility of approving loan applications, and a supervisory committee, which has the responsibility of auditing the records of the credit union periodically. A credit union is directly managed by the treasurer. He is the only member of the official family who can be compensated for his services, and he may only be compensated by vote of the members of the annual meeting. Treasurers of young credit unions are usually underpaid, and many perform their duties largely as a service to their fellow employees. Treasurers of well-established credit unions are often paid at commercial rates for their time. All other credit union officials donate their time for the good of the organization.

A well-managed credit union provides its members with personal loans at a substantially lower interest rate than would otherwise be available to them, and at the same time pays its shareholders a dividend rate materially higher than is available elsewhere with equal security. These financial aspects of the credit union are important, but not as important as its ethical, moral, and spiritual aspects. It is a democratic institution which conforms with the fundamental principles of our form of government in every way and supports that form of government in all of its activities.

Credit unions are relatively new institutions and as a result are not generally known or understood by the public. Superintendents, principals, and teachers can serve the public by including credit union materials in appropriate courses of study, such as business training, home economics, economics, and senior problems.

*Dr. Strain is Treasurer of the Compton District Schools Federal Credit Union, Past President of the California Credit Union League, and a director of the Credit Union National Association.

How To Obtain U. S. Government Films, 1955

by Seerley Reid, Chief, Visual Education Service, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AGENCY	KIND OF FILMS ¹	HOW TO BORROW OR RENT FILMS ²	HOW TO PURCHASE FILMS	FOR FURTHER INFORMATION WRITE
<i>Department of Agriculture</i>	230 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips—on agriculture, conservation, forestry, home economics, and related subjects.	Borrow from Forest Service. Rent from USDA film libraries and from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 200 motion pictures from United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y. Purchase filmstrips from Photo Lab., 3825 Georgia Ave., Washington 11, D. C.	U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Information, Motion Picture Service, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Department of the Air Force</i>	160 motion pictures and 70 filmstrips—public information and training films on various aviation subjects.	Borrow public information films from the Air Force. Rent training films from CAA film depositories and from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 70 motion pictures and 30 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Department of the Army (including Corps of Engineers)</i>	750 motion pictures and 90 filmstrips—public information, medical, and training films on various subjects.	Borrow public information and medical films from the Army. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 490 motion pictures and 55 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Civil Aeronautics Administration (Department of Commerce)</i>	7 motion pictures and 3 filmstrips—on aviation subjects. (NOTE.—The CAA also distributes several hundred Air Force and Navy films dealing with aviation.)	Rent from CAA film depositories.	Purchase 6 motion pictures and 3 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Coast Guard (Department of the Treasury)</i>	45 motion pictures and 45 filmstrips—public information and training films on various subjects related to the Coast Guard and its operations.	Borrow public information films from Coast Guard Washington and district offices. Rent training films from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 30 motion pictures and all filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Coast Guard, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Department of Defense</i>	70 motion pictures—about the Armed Forces.	Borrow from Army, Navy, and Air Force film libraries.	Purchase 50 films from UWF.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Office of Education (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare)</i>	434 motion pictures and 432 filmstrips—on machine shop practices, woodworking skills, and other industrial and vocational training subjects.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase from UWF.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Fish and Wildlife Service (Department of the Interior)</i>	20 motion pictures—on commercial fisheries and on wildlife conservation.	Borrow from FWS or from FWS film depositories.	Purchase 6 motion pictures from UWF. Apply to FWS to buy other films.	U. S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service, P. O. Box 128, College Park, Md.
<i>Bureau of Indian Affairs (Department of the Interior)</i>	20 motion pictures—about Indians and Indian life.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase from U. S. Indian School, Intermountain School, Brigham City, Utah.	U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington 25, D. C.
<i>Institute of Inter-American Affairs (Foreign Operations Administration)</i>	45 motion pictures—on health and agriculture—with English, Portuguese, and Spanish commentaries.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase from FOA.	Foreign Operations Administration, Washington 25, D. C.

The following chart explains how to borrow, rent, and purchase those motion pictures and filmstrips of the U. S. Government which were available for public use in the United States on January 1, 1955. Agencies with fewer than 10 such films have been omitted.

1955

Welfare

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AGENCY	KIND OF FILMS ¹	HOW TO BORROW OR RENT FILMS ²	HOW TO PURCHASE FILMS	FOR FURTHER INFORMATION WRITE
Office of Inter-American Affairs (terminated in 1946)	108 motion pictures on Latin America; 5 on Ohio.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints.	Purchase 66 films from UWF, 43 films from FOA.	U. S. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
Bureau of Mines, Department of the Interior	60 motion pictures—on mining and metallurgical industries and natural resources of various States.	Borrow from Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13, Pa., or from USBM film depositories.	Not for sale.	U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, Office of Mineral Reports, Washington 25, D. C.
Foreign Operations Administration	40 motion pictures—about United States aid to Europe and economic recovery in European countries.	Borrow from FOA film depositories.	Not for sale.	Foreign Operations Administration, Audio-Visual Branch, Washington 25, D. C.
Department of the Navy (including Marine Corps)	725 motion pictures and 200 filmstrips—public information and training films on various subjects.	Borrow public information films from the Navy and Marine Corps, aviation training films from CAA film libraries. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 575 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics	30 motion pictures—on technical aeronautical subjects.	Borrow from NACA.	Obtain authorization from NACA.	National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Washington 25, D. C.
Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	150 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips—on public health and medical subjects.	Borrow from PHS (if professional groups) or from State and local health departments. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 90 motion pictures and 75 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington 25, D. C.
U. S. Information Agency	60 motion pictures—on American life (produced for overseas use).	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase from UWF.	U. S. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
Veterans Administration	65 motion pictures and 6 filmstrips—mostly on medical subjects, some on VA activities and programs.	Borrow from VA.	Purchase 40 motion pictures from UWF. Other films not for sale.	Veterans Administration, VA Central Film Library, Washington 25, D. C.
Office of War Information, Domestic Branch (terminated in 1945)	32 motion pictures—on World War II activities.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints.	Purchase 28 motion pictures from UWF.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.
Office of War Information, Overseas Branch (terminated in 1945)	13 motion pictures—on American life (produced for overseas use).	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase from UWF.	U. S. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.

¹ See also "3,434 U. S. Government Films," Bulletin 1951: No. 21, compiled by USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 70 cents.

² See "A Directory of 2,660 16-mm Film Libraries," Bulletin 1953: No. 7, compiled by the USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 50 cents.

New Mental Health Insights—

—Implications for the Schools

by Hazel F. Gabbard,* Specialist for Extended School Services and Parent Education,
Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

ALTHOUGH there is a wide and increasing public interest in the field of mental health, there is still little understanding of what mental health is and how to maintain it. A well-known definition states: Mental health is directed toward bringing about a condition where each individual gives his best to the world and knows the deep satisfaction of a life richly and fully lived. In reaching this objective the schools have an important role as members of the mental health family.

Joined with the educators in this work are members of other related professions, such as psychiatrists, psychologists, nurses, sociologists, counselors, judges, clergymen, health and welfare workers. The problems of mental health cannot be solved by the experts of any one discipline. There is need for many professions to pool ideas to give breadth in outlook and independence in approaching the complexities of human life.

Releasing Human Resources

The mental health movement is based on the belief that we have no more begun to tap the full possibilities of human development than we have begun to tap the resources of the rest of the natural world. Just as the results of scientific inquiry can enable us to use atomic power where we used water before, and the airplane can speed our travel across this country in a few hours, when the same distance took many weeks in the horse and buggy days, so we can apply our knowledge of human behavior to create greater untapped sources of human potentiality. Those who work with youth in the schools know that there

are millions of children today who, if not actually stunted and deformed in mind and body, are nevertheless far from developing as they might develop with good care and education.

For Important Tasks

An important mental health task to which schools must give more attention is in helping youth face the drastic changes which are going on in the world and which bring with them physical and mental strain too heavy for some individuals to withstand. While it is probably true that the point where an individual may break down mentally is determined originally by the constitution he is born with, it is thought that this point can be greatly lowered by unwholesome ways of behaving which he picks up in his early life. Behavior like sulking, extreme shyness, oversensitiveness, self-pity, bullying, anger outbursts, bossiness, lying and stealing is evidence that a child isn't handling his life very well. If help can be brought to children in their early school years there is some hope of decreasing the number of people who become so maladjusted that they may need treatment in hospitals. It is in early identifying these needs of children that schools can make a tremendous contribution in the preventive work to be done.

The close link of mental health with education was highlighted at the Fifth International Congress on Mental Health, which recently convened in Toronto. An eminent educator from Egypt speaking before a plenary session said: "It is indeed very elementary to know that mental health can only be achieved through education and that education which does not lead to mental health is definitely wasteful and useless. By this I mean, that in the present state of civilization, mental health without

education is not possible and education not leading to mental health is not justifiable."

Good School Described

Dr. El-Koussy, of Ibrahim University of Cairo, in describing a good school drew this picture of a traditional and modern school:

"In a really good school they have abolished the old desk which was very much like a combination of a cell and a strait-jacket. Such desks were designed in such a way as to make the pupils unable to move and yet they can receive with their eyes drawings and symbols from the blackboard no matter how meaningful or meaningless they are, and with their ears some sounds, no matter how sensible or senseless they may be. This is a dictating, obeying atmosphere; it is a prison atmosphere. The material taught in the traditional school is mostly verbal material which stands as vague symbols for somebody else's experience.

"In other words, the pupil in a traditional school lives as a parasite on somebody else's firsthand experiences. That is one of the reasons why very few people become really mature. *The majority suck the food from their mother's breasts when they are babies and in the same manner they suck information from the books of the grownups when they are pupils.* In some places when they grow up further they expect the government to feed them, clothe them, shelter them, and take care of all their problems. Such people are not fit for a really free democratic community which calls for a good deal of active purposeful cooperation and active purposeful fair competition. They fit in admirably in a master-slave situation.

"In a good school there is very little dictating and very little passive obeying. There is free and active searching, free and active doing, and active, creative construct-

*Miss Gabbard was the official representative of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, at the Fifth International Congress on Mental Health held in Toronto, Canada, August 14-21, 1954.

ing. The pupils discuss their problems together and with their teacher. They carry out experiments to find out. They even design their own experiments and when they get stuck they make their own laboratory apparatus. They question the books, the newspapers and the various sources of information and search them with enthusiasm. The pupils construct their boats in the workshop for the boat race. They make the shelves for their library and for their exhibits. When they want to act a play, they sometimes read all the plays available to them; they study them; they subject them to a good deal of literary criticism; they study themselves and their fellows to decide who is most suitable for this or that role. They play games and music and entertain each other. They make their own stage curtains and stage dress. They print their own journal, their invitation cards and paint their posters. They even sell tickets for their shows to raise funds to help needy pupils or improve on the school. They make a practical study of the neighboring or other communities and establish strong relations which are usually useful to both sides. They even meet as court to correct each other and correct the school. In this way they fulfill the three criteria of a good society; first, the society being able to understand and criticize itself fully and freely; and secondly, the society being able to assimilate and incorporate the creations of its leaders, and thirdly, the society being progressive, productive and useful to itself and other societies.

"The pupils in such a school are alive, happy, active, occupied, creative, responsible, cooperative, independent and mature. They work very hard and that makes them very happy and lively because through their activity they develop self-confidence and self-understanding which are realistic, productive, directive and self-perpetuating.

* * * * *

"We find that the good school emphasizes the smooth transition from school life to community life. At one end the home curve and the school curve must make one smooth continuous curve, and similarly at the other end the community curve and the school curve must also make one smooth continuous curve. This implies one principle and that is the principle of security and confidence; but in actual practice it also implies a very large number of problems. The main problem arises from the fact that a parent or a teacher who has been brought up in

the past is asked to handle the child in the present and prepare him for life in the future. The past has gone, the present is going and the future will soon be gone. The gravity of the problem is growing bigger and bigger because the rate of change is accelerating all the time, although the rate as well as the acceleration varies a great deal from society to society.

"In every society there are some people who try to resist change, and who think that security lives in conservatism. There are others who encourage creativeness, development, and progress. The conservatives like to use education largely as a means of preserving traditional culture. But within that framework we have seen some brains which get petrified to the extent that they do not know how to protect and preserve their own tradition within such a very quickly changing society. Such brains are sometimes in some places taken down from the museum shelves and there are attempts to have them dusted, activated, reactivated, and modernized, but the results are usually monstrous. I am not advocating here a breakaway from the past but I am attacking the tendency to stagnation, petrification, and loss of life. In fact a good firm background built up from the past and present elements is a great help for future development. What I am trying to emphasize is the big change taking place and the enormous change that is to be expected."

Teacher's Role—A School Responsibility

Speaking of the dilemma which teachers face the world over in helping youth maintain mental health, Dr. El-Koussy spoke of the pressures placed on them:

"The teachers are of course agents to the whole society irrespective of its divisions and subdivisions. For this, they have to concentrate on method; general ability to think, collection of data, weighing of pros and cons, and helping pupils to arrive at their own conclusions. This is usually only possible with the very intelligent who form a small proportion. But even when it is possible for the teacher to take that attitude at a certain stage it is usually not made possible for him all along. The individual is usually besieged with highly erected walls of ideas and values.

* * * * *

"It is obvious that all these factors make it difficult for the individual to think on his own. What I have just said is summarized in the following statement: *'The thought I*

think is not my thought, but is the thought of one who thought I ought to think his thoughts.'"

In visualizing the good school this educator would place emphasis not alone on the 3R's but on human relations, the education of the whole personality. "It is not a mind, not a body that we have to educate, but a man and we cannot divide him," sums up the task of the school.

For a number of years educators have believed that youth should adjust to the environment in which they live. Dr. Sidney Smith, president of the University of Toronto, in opening the Congress sessions, questioned the wisdom of forcing the individual "to adjust to the norms and habits of an existing society." Such an education, he believes, tends toward deadening uniformity. "In this 20th century there is no society that does not need individuals who will be maladjusted to its norms and habits; who will be searching and critical; who will measure the life that they see against a standard of eternal values; who will seek practical ways through education and discussion, suggestion and compromise, to attack the existing inequities of their society and to strengthen the existing forces for good."

Scientific Study Needed

There is need for the application of science to the problems besetting all who are concerned with mental health. But in the search for objectivity in measurements, exactness, scientific integrity, let us not lose sight of a correlation that cannot be reduced to a formula; that is the correlation *between mental and spiritual health.*

"As lovers of wisdom we must abandon neutrality and we must have the courage to express disagreement. . . . We hear much these days of tolerance. . . . But the cult of tolerance produces congenial, polite groups who listen eagerly to every conceivable side of a question and never make up their minds.

"A young man graduating from Harvard Law School recently made this observation of youth today: 'Most of us have been brought up in a well-mannered atmosphere of tolerance; we have been trained to respect the beliefs we do not ourselves share. The sort of indiscriminate tolerance that robs its adherents of the power to affirm their own beliefs seems to me to be a greater menace in many ways than most forms of prejudice. I think we are in danger of

drawing our own convictions in a great swamp of sweetness and light by being so infernally kind to our neighbors . . . rarely do we say what we believe to be right; instead we say what we know will be pleasant."

"Let us not forget the words of Jefferson: 'That every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle.' And let us remember, too, that life is not a popularity contest and that most of our great achievements have boiled up out of clashes between tough-minded people."

"Tough-minded people, tough-minded individuals are the bane of the behaviorist, the doom of the determinist and the stumbling block of the statistician. They are not predictable. Surely that very unpredictability, that uniqueness, is something exceedingly valuable for human association, for human nature and for mental health. If adjustment could be attained simply by injecting some wonder drug that would iron out the eccentricities of individuals, the price would be too high."

Mental Health Goals

Dr. Smith gave this word of caution: "There are those in mental health who look on the future in terms of more controls, more conditioning and more manipulation of human beings by the specialists. Yet, if one has a great liking for the unorganized, inconsistent human race as it is, one will oppose any concepts of mental health in public affairs that would impose on future generations anything in the nature of uniformity."

Another challenge to mental health thought came from Sir Geoffrey Vickers, a great health leader of Great Britain, who warned that it was dangerous for the layman to think of the role of science as the removal of hazards rather than to fit people to face them. Speaking of developments in the health field, he emphasized that preventive medicine has shifted from the lowering of hazards to the raising of immunity, and in doing so it has shifted *from things which can be done for people to things people can do for themselves.*

Sir Geoffrey Vickers thought that in equating man with his environment it has been the pride of progressive man to make his environment fit him. "To accept the

environment and learn to be equal to it is by no means orthodox, but is refreshingly sane. By all means let us reduce the occasions for stress; but stress will remain a characteristic of human life and it may be that if we could remove it, we should lose what most we need. *Security is not to be found in any aspect of life by eliminating challenge, but only in an inner assurance which no challenge can disturb; and this is outstandingly true in the field of mental health.*

"Life is an individual affair for each one of us. We cannot fight each other's battles, feel each other's pain or see each other's visions. The social condition which

is integral to us does not make us less than our individual selves. For each of us, as well as for society, and posterity, *the need to struggle is the chance to grow.*"

Here are recorded some of the highlights of international leaders in mental health which have implications for the schools. Educators may find it worthwhile to ponder these ideas in order to refocus our professional efforts to meet the mental health needs of children and youth. These statements from leaders in other countries, who view the world from a different perspective, present a point of view with a freshness and clarity that people in the United States need to stimulate their own thinking and doing.

Elementary Teachers Salaries UP Secondary Teachers Salaries DOWN

by Lester B. Herlihy, Specialist, Education Statistics,
Research and Statistical Standards, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

SALARIES paid to elementary school teachers were increased 5.8 percent from 1949-50 to 1952-53.

In dollars, the amount of the increase was \$242.

On the other hand there was a decline of 1.8 percent over the same period of time in salaries paid high school teachers, exclusive of those teaching vocational high schools. The decrease amounted to \$85. Salaries of teachers in vocational high schools gained 3.6 percent, or \$189.

This information is based upon an Office of Education study of teacher salaries in 158 cities of different population size in four geographic regions. The figures have been adjusted to the value of the 1952-53 dollar.

Forty-two cities of 10,000 to 25,000 population reported the largest elementary teacher salary increase—9.7 percent, representing an average rise in salary of \$310. The largest salary increase for high school teachers was 7 percent, reported by 33 cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population.

Cities in the West reported the highest percentage of salary increase over the 3-

year period. In this region the upturn was 12 percent, averaging \$460. High school teacher salaries in this region also increased 7.8 percent, or \$348.

Los Angeles, Chicago, Detroit, New York, and Philadelphia, all cities with a population of one million or more, report an increase of \$227, or 4.9 percent, in salaries of elementary school teachers from 1949-50 to 1952-53. High school teachers' salaries in these cities declined 4.8 percent during the same 3-year period. At the same time the salaries of teachers in vocational high schools in these cities increased 4.9 percent or \$251.

It should be pointed out that "disposable personal income," which is personal income after payment of all taxes and which has been adjusted to the 1952-53 dollar value, increased from \$1,442 to \$1,541, or 6.9 percent, between 1949-50 and 1952-53. It is also pointed out that teachers in this study are defined as teachers and other instructional staff members such as librarians and guidance personnel, and psychological personnel. Supervisors and principals are not included in this analysis.

Average salary of teachers in full-time day schools in 158 city school systems, by region and city-sized group: 1949-50 and 1952-53

Region and group	Number of identical city school systems reported	Average salary of teacher ¹									Percentage of change between 1949-50 and 1952-53, adjusted to 1952-53 dollar	
		1949-50 (adjusted to the 1952-53 dollar) ²						1952-53				
		Elementary ³		High school ⁴		Vocational high school ⁵						
		Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Elementary ¹	High school ²	Vocational high ³	Elementary	High school
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Total (including cities with a million population and more).....	158	\$3,719	\$4,187	\$4,254	\$4,791	\$4,646	\$5,232	\$4,429	\$4,706	\$5,421	5.8	-1.8
All regions:												
Group I (cities of 100,000 to 999,999 population).....	34	3,397	3,826	3,946	4,444	4,185	4,717	4,126	4,496	4,767	8.0	1.2
Group II (cities 25,000 to 99,999 population).....	44	3,129	3,524	3,605	4,060	3,664	4,126	3,698	4,122	3,694	4.9	1.5
Group III (cities of 10,000 to 24,999 population).....	42	2,833	3,191	3,315	3,734			3,501	3,957		9.7	6.0
Group IV (cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population).....	33	2,599	2,928	3,011	3,391			3,171	3,625		8.3	6.9
Total.....	153	3,300	3,716	3,810	4,291	4,165	4,691	3,990	4,359	4,721	7.4	1.6
Northeast:												
Group I ⁶	7	3,580	4,032	4,077	4,592	5,381	6,060	4,488	4,732	5,001	11.3	3.0
Group II.....	17	3,234	3,642	3,618	4,075	3,664	4,126	3,900	4,247	3,924	7.4	4.2
Group III.....	17	3,007	3,386	3,481	3,920			3,763	4,175		11.1	6.5
Group IV.....	6	2,524	2,843	3,129	3,524			3,193	3,619		12.3	2.7
Total.....	47	3,407	3,835	3,870	4,357	4,243	4,778	4,214	4,515	4,812	9.8	3.6
North Central:												
Group I ⁶	12	3,435	3,868	4,124	4,644	4,299	4,842	4,240	4,731	4,831	9.6	1.9
Group II.....	14	3,113	3,506	3,587	4,040			3,732	4,349		6.6	7.7
Group III.....	17	2,723	3,067	3,213	3,618			3,357	3,874		9.5	7.1
Group IV.....	15	2,655	2,990	2,920	3,289			3,336	3,730		11.6	13.4
Total.....	58	3,319	3,738	3,890	4,381	4,299	4,842	4,086	4,538	4,831	9.3	3.6
South:												
Group I ⁶	9	3,224	3,631	3,626	4,084	3,914	4,408	3,653	3,844	4,163	.6	-6.2
Group II.....	7	2,754	3,102	3,082	3,471			3,141	3,254		1.3	-6.7
Group III.....	3	2,577	2,902	2,741	3,087			2,974	3,129		2.5	1.4
Group IV.....	6	2,384	2,685	2,475	2,787			2,880	2,907		7.3	4.3
Total.....	25	3,123	3,517	3,512	3,955	3,914	4,408	3,543	3,720	4,163	.7	-6.3
West:												
Group I ⁶	6	3,427	3,859	4,007	4,513	3,939	4,436	4,420	5,004	5,182	14.5	10.9
Group II.....	6	3,436	3,870	4,669	4,583			4,061	4,572		4.9	-.2
Group III.....	5	2,885	3,249	3,485	3,925			3,626	4,034		11.6	2.7
Group IV.....	6	2,757	3,105	3,463	3,960			3,160	3,947		1.8	1.2
Total.....	23	3,392	3,820	3,981	4,483	3,939	4,436	4,280	4,831	5,182	12.0	7.8
Systems in cities of a million population and more:												
Los Angeles, Calif.....	1	4,003	4,508	4,561	5,137			4,797	5,368		6.4	4.5
Chicago, Ill.....	1	4,123	4,643	5,173	5,826	6,109	6,880	4,623	5,152	6,457	-4.4	-13.1
Detroit, Mich.....	1	4,414	4,971	4,880	5,496	6,194	6,976	5,070	5,618	6,780	2.0	2.2
New York, N. Y.....	1	4,346	4,894	4,898	5,516	4,797	5,402	5,153	5,951	5,772	5.3	7.9
Philadelphia, Pa.....	1	3,278	3,692	3,861	4,348	3,592	4,045	4,316	4,733	4,422	16.9	8.9
Total.....	5	4,148	4,671	4,744	5,343	4,867	5,481	4,898	5,108	5,750	4.9	-4.6

¹ Does not include salary expenditure for principals and supervisors; includes school librarians and guidance and psychological personnel.

² Based on Consumer Price Index figures series A1 (1947-49=100) Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

³ Includes kindergarten teachers.

⁴ "High school" includes all the various types of high

school organizations, for example: Junior, junior-senior, senior, and regular 4-year.

⁵ Includes trade and technical high schools.

⁶ Cities of 100,000 to 999,999 populations, excludes the 5 cities of 1,000,000 population and more.

⁷ Includes "special welfare high schools" and "special high schools" for the handicapped.

⁸ Includes intermediate, comprehensive and commercial, trade and technical high school organizations.

Nationwide Financial Accounting Project Gets Under Way

FIVE NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS are cooperating with the Office of Education in the development of a financial accounting manual for local and State school systems. These organizations are American Association of School Administrators, National School Boards Association, Department of Rural Education of the NEA, Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, and Council of Chief State School Officers. On September 30, at the call of Commissioner Brownell, the executive secretaries of these organizations met in the Office of Education to develop an overall plan for the financial accounting project.

Decisions Made

At this meeting important decisions were reached on the conduct of the project, the ways in which each organization would share in its development, and methods which would be used in its implementation. The project plan calls for the participation of hundreds of designated representatives of the cooperating agencies. These representatives, at national and regional conferences, will make the decisions which determine the contents of the accounting manual. Staff members of the Office of Education will act as facilitating agents in the compilation of the materials and preparation of the handbook but will not vote in deciding the issues involving the contents.

The second step in the development of the project was a national planning conference held on November 22 and 23. Here the representatives of the cooperating agencies decided significant issues involving the general format of the proposed manual as well as technical issues regarding its contents. General agreement was reached on the underlying purpose of the manual. The manual will be designed to serve local and State school officials as the basic reference in the field of financial accounting for public education in the United States.

The proposed financial accounting handbook will fit in the general plan of the record and reporting series and be identified as Handbook II. *Handbook I, The*

Common Core of State Educational Information, was published in 1953. It contains the items with definitions that every State department of education should have available. The third and fourth handbooks in the series will deal with personnel accounting and property accounting, respectively.

Practical Handbook Insured

In the immediate future the staff in the Office of Education will compile the material for preliminary Handbook II in accordance with the instructions of the planning conference. School business officials from local school systems and representatives from agencies such as the Census Bureau will provide technical advice and suggestions in the preparation of the preliminary document. The preliminary document will be considered at a national conference, and then it will be revised. It will later be considered at regional conferences throughout the United States and again at a national conference. Hundreds of persons in key positions in local and State school systems who will be its users will participate in the development and perfecting of this manual. It is hoped that this method will insure the production of a handbook which is practical and usable by the entire profession.

Educational Television

(Continued from page 84)

with pictures and complete graphs of syllogism and sequences, he took them back to his classes and said he would never teach logic in the old way again. Not many can use models as Frank Baxter uses them, or handle an interview or documentary as effectively as Edward R. Murrow. We can, however, *improve* over our methods by observing them. And that is where the master teacher comes in—he should simply be the teacher of teachers; it is true, he can teach millions if millions want to see and hear him. But let us teach the thousands who expectantly want something besides entertainment from their television sets or let us use television to illustrate our regular curricular subjects in a way that we cannot do in the classroom. Possibly, the best test of the use of any scientific aid to learning is whether it can do what we cannot do ourselves. In this test, television takes its place alongside the other audio and visual aids we already use. If intelligently directed, it will not be found wanting.

American Education On a New Horizon

(Continued from page 82)

Science has given us the means for alleviating the conditions which I have described. Two opposing groups in the world are in competition to fill the vacuum. On the one hand there is the Communist world dominated by the most ruthless dictatorship ever known. Their scheme is to enslave the minds of all people everywhere and to exploit them in building a worldwide dictatorship. The scheme includes America. Its methods are intrigue, internal revolution, chaos, frustration, and starvation if necessary.

The United States is cooperating with other free-world countries, both through the United Nations and our own bilateral programs, in the development of local leadership for the alleviation of the miseries of millions of people whose countries have not yet gained their economic and social potentialities. This then is the new frontier for American educators—for men experienced in agriculture, health, industry, and engineering. Basic to our technical assistance in all of these areas is the concept of education as fundamental to improvement in agriculture, health, industry, public administration, and other areas of economic and social development. It is equally fundamental that education be used as an instrument of freedom—that men and women who for generations have known the evils of suppression may be liberated through their own power.

The method of helping these people is essentially one of sharing ideas. It is not a give-away program. The purpose is to share our skills, knowledge, and freedom with those who are impoverished in body, heart, and spirit.

America alone cannot lead the world out of the great despair into which the science of war has delivered mankind. We can be of great help providing we dust off the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights and let the world know that they continue to apply—at home and abroad. Moreover, we need to approach this task humbly and in the spirit of that Great Teacher of our heritage who proclaimed, "But he that is greatest among you shall be your servant."

NATO ESSAY COMPETITION, 1955

A FREE ROUND-TRIP air passage, with a week's accommodation, to NATO headquarters in Paris, SHAPE, and other NATO installations will go to the winner of a nationwide essay competition. The American Council on NATO, a group of citizens organized to support the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, is conducting the competition among two age groups: those under 19 and those between 19 and 30 years old. The winning essay from each age group in the United States will be placed in competition with those from each of other member NATO nations. The international winner in each age group will get the top prize. The Council is offering additional prizes to United States winners.

Contestants may select one of three prescribed subjects. In not more than 3,000 words, they may (a) contrast the North Atlantic Treaty with other multilateral alliances in history; or (b) examine the possibilities of the NATO as an instrument for political stability and well-being; or (c) write a letter addressed to an imaginary young Communist behind the Iron Curtain dealing with the accusation that NATO is part of a capitalist conspiracy against "true" democracy, and explain the way of life which NATO exists to defend.

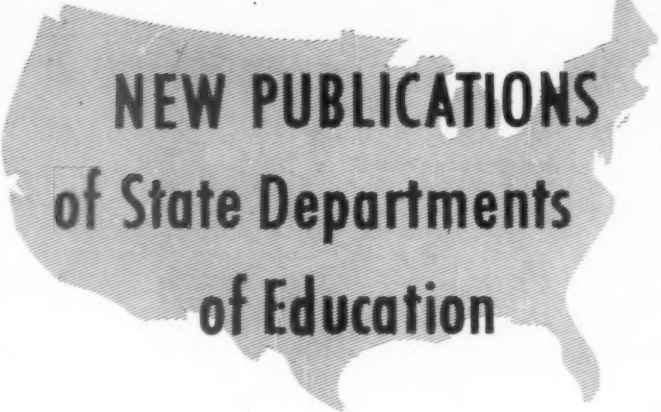
Entries from within the United States must be submitted by April 10, 1955; those from outside the United States, by March 25, 1955. Information about the NATO Essay Competition may be obtained from:

Miss Frances Barry,
Assistant Secretary, American Council
on NATO,
8101 Empire State Building,
New York 1, N. Y.

"Believe, Belong, Build"

The 1955 Girl Scout Week, March 6-12, was developed on the theme "Believe, Belong, Build." This special week was scheduled to include March 12, the anniversary of the day in 1912 when Juliette Gordon Low called together the little group of girls in Savannah, Ga., to form the first Girl Scout troop.

About 1,750,000 girls are enrolled in the Girl Scouts of the U. S. A. They are guided by a half million devoted men and women who are registered members and by countless others who work with and for the Girl Scouts. Since the organization was set up with a little group of neighborhood girls, it has grown into a nationwide influence for better citizenship among girls and women.



NEW PUBLICATIONS of State Departments of Education

by Willis C. Brown,
Specialist, Instruction,
Organization and
Services Branch,
Office of Education,
U. S. Department of
Health, Education,
and Welfare

THE accompanying lists, entitled "Elementary Education Aids" and "Secondary Education Aids," are the second in a series of recent publications of State departments of education.

Increasingly we find that similar educational problems appear in various parts of the country. Their analyses and solutions, governed by local conditions, written in bulletin form, are of prime importance to many.

This is a random listing of publications contributed by the State departments of education. No evaluation has been made. It should not be inferred that the reports are all considered to be of top importance by the States concerned. Some, indeed, are, but there are many other reasons for issuing publications.

Correspondence regarding any publication should be with the publishing agency listed under each State heading. Some items may be for sale, others may be out of stock. No copies are available from the Office of Education in Washington.

Elementary Education Aids

Delaware

TEACHING TO LIVE. *Bulletin No. 84*. 1954. 171 p. State Department of Public Instruction, Dover. Prepared to help classroom teachers in the fields of health, physical education, and safety. Discusses organization and administration of these areas and presents instructional materials.

Florida

MUSIC FOR FLORIDA CHILDREN. *Bulletin No. N40*. 1954. 129 p. State Department of Education, Tallahassee. Discusses what constitutes the music education program and presents a 3-year plan for initiating and developing such a program.

Maryland

SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN MARYLAND. *Vol. 33, No. 2*. 1954. 107 p. State Department of Education, Baltimore. Presents purpose and function of the library in elementary and secondary schools. Outlines specific services and responsibilities of administrators, librarians, and teachers in developing a program offering rich learning opportunities. Recommends policies and practices for the inservice education of librarians and teachers.

Massachusetts

PHONICS AT WORK. (*Supplement to Reading Section, Massachusetts Curriculum Guide*.) 1954. 46 p. State Department of Education, Boston. Quotes from research findings in discussing the teaching of phonics, principles of teaching, phonics in relation to the various levels of skills and abilities, and phonetic power in relation to spelling ability. Contains summary and bibliography.

Mississippi

A SUGGESTED PROGRAM OF ORAL COMMUNICATION FOR MISSISSIPPI SCHOOLS. 1953. *No. 139*. 174 p. State Department of Education, Jackson. Part I discusses elementary school problems of reading, speech improvement, testing, the integrated program, teaching aids, and suggested criteria for evaluation in relation to oral communication. Part II deals with similar secondary school problems.

Washington

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE EDUCATION—LANGUAGE ARTS. 1954. 32 p. Office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia. "Prepared to assist elementary school faculties in studying and developing their programs for the improvement of com-

munication." Emphasizes reading and oral and written expression. Bibliography.

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE EDUCATION—WORKING WITH NUMBERS. 1954. 56 p. Designed to encourage creative teaching and serve as a basis for developing arithmetic skills and planning content to teach. Tells how to relate arithmetic to other experiences and how to teach arithmetic in schools with combined grades. Bibliography.

West Virginia

COAL MINING AND OTHER INDUSTRIES IN WEST VIRGINIA. *A Curriculum Bulletin for Teachers, Grades 1-12*. 1954. 245 p. State Department of Education, Charleston. Provides resource material for teaching about West Virginia's industries, with suggestions for teaching at the various grade levels. Bibliography.

Secondary Education Aids

Alaska

ENGLISH FOR ALASKA HIGH SCHOOLS. *Bulletin No. 2 (Revised)*. 1954. 106 p. Department of Education, Juneau. Presents outline for standard 4-year English course and outlines for public speaking, journalism, and dramatics courses.

Florida

A GUIDE TO TEACHING SPEECH IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *Bulletin No. 34A (Revised)*. 1954. 100 p. State Department of Education, Tallahassee. Includes units on developing speech awareness, voice and diction, listening, conversation, group discussion, parliamentary law, extempore speaking, debate, oral reading, radio, and dramatics. Units may be used in sequence for speech course or separately in other courses. Contains suggestions for speech program in seventh and eighth grades.

Tennessee

A REPORT OF THE STATE STEERING COMMITTEE OF THE TENNESSEE PRINCIPALS' STUDY COUNCIL. 1954. 24 p. State Department of Education, Nashville. Briefly describes the studies recently completed by the Principals' Study Council and lists troublesome unsolved problems and plans for an action program for 1954-55.

West Virginia

CLASSIFIED HIGH SCHOOLS AND APPROVED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS. 1954. 43 p. State Department of Education, Charleston. A list of West Virginia public and private secondary schools approved for the school year 1953-54.

New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer

Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)

APPLIED PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY: A Functional Approach to Understanding Community and Educative Processes. Edited by Harold R. Bottrell. Harrisburg, Pa., The Stackpole Company, 1954. 392 p. \$4.50.

ARITHMETIC—CHILDREN USE IT! By Edwina Deans. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1954. 56 p. Illus. (Bulletin No. 94 of the Association for Childhood Education International.) 75 cents.

EACH ONE TEACH ONE: Frank Laubach, Friend to Millions. By Marjorie Medary. New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1954. 227 p. Illus. \$3.00.

EDUCATORS GUIDE TO FREE TAPES, SCRIPTS AND TRANSCRIPTIONS. Compiled and Edited by Walter A. Wittich and Gertie L. Hanson. Randolph, Wisconsin, Educators Progress Service, 1955. 144 p. \$4.75.

EVALUATION IN GENERAL EDUCATION. Edited by Paul L. Dreschel. Dubuque, Iowa, Wm. C. Brown Co., 1954. 333 p. \$4.

FILMS FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES. Selected by a Committee of the American Library Association Audio-Visual Board. Chicago, American Library Association, 1955. 60 p. \$1.50.

FINANCING ADULT EDUCATION IN AMERICA'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS. By Edward B. Olds. Washington, D. C., Adult Education Association of the U. S. A., 1954. 20 p. 25 cents.

A FOUNDATION FOR ART EDUCATION. By Manuel Barkan. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 235 p. \$4.00.

FOUNDATIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. By Carl G. F. Franzen. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 492 p. \$4.50.

THE FUNCTIONAL BODY MEASUREMENTS OF SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN. A Handbook for Manufacturers, Design Engineers, Architects, and School Officials for Use in Planning School Furniture, Equipment, and Buildings. Prepared by W. Edgar Martin; Measuring and Analysis Data by Fred P. Thieme. Chicago, Ill., 1954. 90 p. Illus. \$1.00. (Address: National School Service Institute, 27 East Monroe St., Chicago, Ill.)

THE HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT HEAD IN BUSINESS EDUCATION. By Edward H. Goldstein. Cincinnati, Ohio, South-Western Publishing Company, 1954. 80 p. (Monograph 89.)

A HISTORY OF TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. By Lawrence A. Cremin, David A. Shannon, and Mary Evelyn Townsend. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 289 p. Illus. \$4.25.

GROWTH OF ART IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS. By Frederick M. Logan. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 310 p. \$3.50.

THE MAGIC WORLD OF BOOKS. By Charlemae Rollins. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 40 p. Illus. (Junior Life Adjustment Booklet.) 50 cents.

NEED A LIFT? Educational Opportunities for Children of Veterans. Indianapolis, Indiana, Scholarship Information Service, National Child Welfare Division, The American Legion, 1954. 56 p.

101 QUESTIONS ABOUT PUBLIC EDUCATION. Chicago, Ill., National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1954. 95 p. Illus. \$1.00.

ORAL DECISION-MAKING: Principles of Discussion and Debate. By Waldo W. Braden and Earnest Brandenburg. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 572 p. Illus. \$4.75.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL BOYS AND GIRLS—A Handbook of Sports, Athletics, and Recreation Activities. Washington 6, D. C., American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1955. 384 p. \$3.50.

REACHING TEEN-AGERS THROUGH GROUP WORK AND RECREATION PROGRAMS. Observations on Work with Teen-agers in Agencies Cooperating with the Youth Board. New York, New York City Youth Board, 1954. 43 p. Illus. (Youth Board Monograph No. 1.)

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY. Educational and Public Relations. By J. E. Grinnell and Raymond J. Young. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 444 p. Illus. \$5.50.

SPONSORED RESEARCH POLICY OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES. A Report of the Committee on Institutional Research Policy. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1954. 95 p. \$1.50.

SPORTSMANLIKE DRIVING. (Third, Revised, Edition) Washington, D. C., American Automobile Association, 1955. 480 p. Illus. \$2.10 to schools.

STAFF RELATIONS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION. Washington, D. C., American Association of School Administrators, 1955. 470 p. (Thirty-third Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators.) \$5.00.

STARTING THE SECOND HALF CENTURY. Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee for the Year Ending September 30, 1954. By Gertrude Folks Zimand. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1954. 18 p. Single copy free.

WITH PERSPECTIVE ON HUMAN RELATIONS. A Study of Peer Group Dynamics in an Eighth Grade. By Hilda Taba. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1955. 155 p. (Studies in Intergroup Relations.) \$1.75.

TECHNICAL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACHIEVEMENT TESTS. By Committee on Test Standards, American Educational Research Association and Committee on Test Standards, National Council on Measurements Used in Education. Washington, D. C., American Educational Research Association, National Education Association, 1955. 36 p. \$1.00.

